REMOTE POINTS IN βR AND P-POINTS IN βR – R $_{\odot}$

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ABSTRACT

We are going to study the remote points in βR and the P-points in $\beta R - R$. A remote point in βR is a point which is not in the βR chosure of any discrete subset of R. A point $p \in \beta R - R$ is a P-point of $\beta R - R$ if every G_{δ} -set containing p is a neighbourhood of p.

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INTRODUCTION

As we know, every completely regular space X has a compactification βX such that every function f in C*(X) has an extension to a function f^{β} in C(βX). This thesis is devoted to study the papers [1], [3], [4], [5].

In chapter II, we study the class of subalgebras of C(X) called β -subalgebras. With each β -subalgebra A of C(X), we define A-points in $\beta X - X$. Then we study the A-points in chapter III. In chapter IV, we turn our attention to the remote points in βR . Finally, we study the prime ideal structure of C(X).

CHAPTER I

PRELIMINARIES

Throughout this thesis, all given spaces are assumed to be completely regular and Hausdorff. C(X) will denote the collection of all real-valued continuous functions on X, and C*(X) will denote the subcollection of bounded functions. Under the pointwise operation, C(X) and C*(X) are commutative rings with identity. All ideals in C(X) or C*(X), unmodified, will always mean proper ideals. If S is a set, then |S| will denote the cardinality of S. As is standard, let c denote the cardinality 2^{N_0} of the continuum. Furthermore, we assume the continuum hypothesis (c = \aleph_1). If S $\subset X$, then Cl_XS , int_XS , ϑ_XS will denote, respectively, the closure, interior and boundary of S in X. If f is a function, then we let f^{<--} denote the inverse map.

<u>Definition</u> (1.1) For $f \in C(X)$, $Z(f) = f^{(-)}(0) = \{ x \in X : f(x) = 0 \}$ is called a zero set in X while X - Z(f) is called a cozero set in X. The family Z[C(X)] of all zero sets in X will be denoted by Z(X).

Remark (1.2)

(1) The family Z(X) of all zero sets is a base for the closed sets.

(2) f is a unit of C(X) if and only if $Z(f) = \phi$

(3) Every zero set is a G_{δ} set .

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<u>Definition</u> (1.3) Two subsets A and B of X are said to be completely separated in X if there exists a function $f \in C^*(X)$ such that $0 \le f \le 1$. $f[A] = \{0\}$, $f[B] = \{1\}$.

<u>Definition</u> (1.4) A subspace S of X is said to be C-embedded in X if every function in C(S) can be extended to a function in C(X). S is C^* -embedded in X if every function in $C^*(S)$ can be extend to a function in $C^*(X)$.

<u>Definition</u> (1.5) A non-empty family F of Z(X) is called a z-filter on X provided that

- (a) ¢ ∉ F
- (b) if Z(f), $Z(g) \in F$, then $Z(f) \cap Z(g) \in F$

(c) if $Z(f) \in F$, $Z(g) \in Z(X)$ and $Z(f) \subset Z(g)$, then $Z(g) \in F$.

If in addition, F is not contained in any other z-filter, then F is called a z-ultrafilter on X.

Theorem (1.6)

- (a) If I is an ideal [resp. maximal ideal] in C(X), then Z[I]={Z(f):fɛI} is a z-filter [resp. z-ultrafilter] on X.
- (b) If F is a z-filter [resp. z-ultrafilter] on X, then $Z^{\leftarrow}[F]=\{f:Z(f)\in F\}$ is an ideal [resp. maximal ideal] in C(X).

Hence the mapping Z is one-one from the set of all maximal ideals in C onto the set of all z-ultrafilters.

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<u>Definition</u> (1.7) An ideal I in C(X) is called a z-ideal if $Z(f) \in Z[I]$ implies $f \in I$.

<u>Definition</u> (1.8) A z-filter F in X is called a prime z-filter if F has the following property : whenever the union of two zero sets belongs to F, then at least one of them belongs to F.

<u>Definition</u> (1.9) An ideal I in C(X) or C*(X) is said to be fixed if $\cap Z[I] \neq \phi$. Otherwise I is said to be free.

Theorem (1.10)

(a) The fixed maximal ideals in C(X) are precisely the sets

 $M_p = \{ f \in C : f(p) = 0 \}$ (p $\in X$).

The ideals M_p are distinct for distinct p. For each p, C/M_p is isomorphic with the real field R; in fact, the mapping $M_p(f) \longrightarrow f(p)$ is the unique isomorphism of C/M_p onto R.

(b) The fixed maximal ideals in $C^*(X)$ are precisely the sets

 $M_p^* = \{ f \in C^* : f(p) = 0 \}$ (p $\in X$).

The ideals M_p^* are distinct for distinct p. For each p, C^*/M_p^* is isomorphic with the real field R; in fact, the mapping $M_p^*(f) \longrightarrow f(p)$ is the unique isomorphism of C^*/M_p^* onto R. <u>Definition</u> (1.11) For $p \in X$, let O_p denote the set of all f in C for which Z(f) is a neighbourhood of p. If $M_p = O_p$, then p is called a P-point of X.

Remark (1.12) $p \in X$ is a P-point of X if and only if every G_{δ} containing p is a neighbourhood of p.

Remark (1.13)

(a) For $p \in X$, M_p is the only maximal ideal (fixed or free) containing O_p .

(b) If P is a prime ideal in C, and $P \subset M_p$, then $P \supset O_p$.

<u>Definition</u> (1.14) By a compactification of a space X, we mean a compact space in which X is dense.

<u>Theorem</u> (1.15) Every space X has a Stone-Cech compactification βX with the following equivalent properties :

(1) (Stone) Every continuous mapping τ from X into any compact space Y has a continuous extension $\overline{\tau}$ from βX into Y.

(2) (Stone-Cech) Every function f in C*(X) has an extension to a function f^{β} in C(β X).

(3) (Cech) Any two disjoint zero sets in X have disjoint closures in βX .

(4) For any two zero sets Z_1 and Z_2 in X,

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$$Cl_{\beta X} (Z_1 \cap Z_2) = Cl_{\beta X} Z_1 \cap Cl_{\beta X} Z_2$$

(5) If X is dense and C^{*}-embedded in T, then $X \subset T \subset \beta X$.

(6) If X is dense and C*-embedded in T, then $\beta T = \beta X$. Furthermore, βX is unique, in the following sense : if a compactification T of X satisfies any one of the listed conditions, then there exists a homeomorphism of βX onto T that leaves X pointwise fixed.

(1) For $S \subset X$. S is C^* -embedded in X if and only if $Cl_{\beta X} S = \beta S$. (2) The mapping $f \longrightarrow f^{\beta}$ is an isomorphism of $C^*(X)$ onto $C(\beta X)$.

Theorem (1.17) The maximal ideals in $C^*(X)$ are precisely the sets

$$M^{*P} = \{ f \in C^{*}(X) : f^{\beta}(p) = 0 \}$$
 (p $\epsilon \beta X$),

and they are distinct for distinct p. The maximal ideals in C(X) are precisely the sets

 $M^{p} = \{ f \in C(X) : p \in Cl_{\beta X}Z_{X}(f) \} \quad (p \in \beta X) ,$

and they are distinct for distinct p .

<u>Definition</u> (1.18) Let M be a maximal ideal of C(X). [resp. $C^*(X)$]. M is said to be a real ideal if C/M [resp. C^*/M] is isomorphic to the real field R. If M is not real, then we call M hyper-real.

Definition (1.19)

(a) X is said to be realcompact if every real maximal ideal in C(X) is fixed.

(b) By a realcompactification of X, we mean a realcompact space in whichX is dense.

(c) X is said to be pseudocompact if $C(X) = C^*(X)$.

<u>Theorem</u> (1.20) M^p is hyper-real if and only if M^{*p} contains a unit of C.

Theorem (1.21) Let vX denote the set of all points $p \in \beta X$ such that M^p is real. Then

(a) vX is the largest subspace of βX in which X is C-embedded.

(b) vX is the smallest realcompact space between X and βX . In particular, X is realcompact if and only if X = vX.

<u>Theorem</u> (1.22) Every (completely regular) space X has a realcompactification νX , contained in βX , with the following equivalent properties.

(1) Every continuous mapping τ from X into any realcompact space Y has a continuous extension τ^{O} from vX into Y. (Necessarily, $\tau^{O} = \tau | vX$, where $\overline{\tau}$ is the Stone extension of τ into β Y.)

(2) Every function f in C(X) has an extension to a function f^{ν} in C(ν X). (Necessarily $f^{\nu} = f^* | \nu X$.) Furthermore, the space νX is unique,

in the following sense : if a realcompactification T of X satisfies any one of the listed conditions, then there exists a homeomorphism of vX onto T that leaves X pointwise fixed.

<u>Theorem</u> (1.23) If $f \in C(X)$, and αR denotes the one-point compactification of R, then there is a (unique) continuous function $f^* : \beta X \longrightarrow \alpha R$ which agrees with f on X.

<u>Theorem</u> (1.24) In the ring C(X), and also in $C^*(X)$, the prime ideals containing a given prime ideal form a chain. (A chain is a totally ordered sets.)

CHAPTER II

8

B-SUBALGEBRAS

Let A be a commutative ring with an identity. Let F be the set of prime ideals in A. For $E \subset A$, define

$$V(E) = \{ P \in F : E \subset P \}$$

Note that

(1)
$$V(\phi) = F$$

(2) $V(A) = \phi$
(3) $V(\bigcup_{i \in l} E_i) = \bigcap_{i \in l} V(E_i)$

 $E_i \subset A$, i εl , where l is an index set. 100

(4)
$$V(E \cap F) = V(E) \cup V(F)$$

 $E \subset A$, $F \subset A$.

Therefore the V's determine a topology on F. This topology is called the hull-kernel topology.

Now for $a \in A$, define

$$V(a) = \{ P \in F : a \in P \}$$

and let

$$F_a = F - V(a)$$
.

Theorem (2.1)

(i) { F_a : $a \in A$ } is a basis of open sets for F with the hull-kernel topology.

<u>Proof</u>: (i) Let B be a closed subset in F, then B = V(E) for some ECA. Now $P \in F - B$ if and only if $P \notin B$ if and only if $E \not\subset P$ if and only if there exists $a \in E$ such that $a \notin P$ if and only if there exists $a \in E$ such that $P \in F_a$. Thus $F - B = \bigcup_{a \in E} F_a$.

(ii) Suppose $F = \bigcup_{a \in E} F_a$, $E \subset A$. Let I = (E) = ideal generated by E. We claim I = A. Suppose $I \neq A$, then by Zorn's lemma $I \subset P$ for some $P \in F$, then $P \in F_a$ for some $a \in E$. Hence $a \notin P$. But $a \in E \subset I \subset P$, contradicting $a \notin P$. Therefore we must have I = A. So $1 = \sum_{i=1}^{r} b_i a_i$, $a_i \in E$, $b_i \in A$. Now for $P \in F$, since $1 \notin P$, there exists i, $1 \leq i \leq n$ such that $a_i \notin P$. It follows that $P \in F_{a_i}$. This proves that

$$F = F_{a_1} \cup \cdots \cup F_{a_n}$$

and F is compact.

<u>Notation</u> (2.2) Let M_A denote the collection of maximal ideals in A endowed with the hull-kernel topology.

<u>Definition</u> (2.3) By a subalgebra A of C(X), we mean a subalgebra in the usual sense which contains the constant functions.

Given a subalgebra A of C(X). Define for each $p \in \beta X$,

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$$M_A^p = \{ f \in A : (fg)^*(p) = 0 \text{ for all } g \in A \}$$

where f^{\star} maps $\beta\,X$ into the one point compactification of R as stated in 1.23 . Let

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$$G_A = \{ M_A^p : p \in \beta X \}$$
.

<u>Theorem</u> (2.4) M_A^P is a prime ideal in A, $p \in \beta X$.

<u>Proof</u>: Since $0 \in M_A^p$ and $1 \notin M_A^p$, we see that $M_A^p \neq \phi$ and $M_A^p \neq A$. Obviously M_A^p is an ideal in A. To prove that M_A^p is prime, it suffices to show that if f, g $\in A$ with f, g $\notin M_A^p$, then fg $\notin M_A^p$. Now let f, g $\in A$, choose h, k $\in A$ such that $(fh)^*(p) \neq 0$ and $(gk)^*(p) \neq 0$. Then $(fghk)^*(p) \neq 0$. Thus fg $\notin M_A^p$.

Remark (2.6) $C^{*}(X)$ and C(X) are β -subalgebras of C(X).

For $f \in A$, let

$$S_{A}(f) = \tau_{A}^{\leftarrow} \{ p \in G_{A} : f \in P \}$$
$$= \{ p \in \beta X : f \in M_{A}^{P} \}$$
$$= () Z((fg)^{*}) .$$

gεA

Since $Z((fg)^*)$ is closed in βX , $S_A(f)$ is closed in βX . Note that τ_A is continuous, since { { $p \in G_A$: $f \in P$ } : $f \in A$ } is a base for the closed sets in G_A

<u>Definition</u> (2.7) A subalgebra A of C(X) is said to be β -determining if { Z(f^{*}) : f ϵ A } forms a base for the closed sets in β X. A is said to be closed under bounded inversion if f is a unit of A whenever f ϵ A with f \geq 1.

<u>Definition</u> (2.8) An ideal I in A is said to be absolutely convex if f ϵ I whenever f ϵ A and g ϵ I satisfying $|f| \leq |g|$.

For convenience, we shall abbreviate M_A , M_A^p , G_A , τ_A and S_A to M, M^p , G, τ and S, respectively.

Theorem (2.9) Given a subalgebra A of C(X), the following are equivalent.

(1) A is β -determining

(2) G is Hausdorff and τ is one-to-one

(3) τ is a homeomorphism

<u>Proof</u>: (1) implies (2). Suppose A is β -determining and let $p,q \in \beta X$ with $p \neq q$. By [2, 6.5(b)], there exists Z_1 , $Z_2 \in Z(X)$ such that $Z_1 \cup Z_2 = X$ and $p \notin Cl_{\beta X}Z_1$, $q \notin Cl_{\beta X}Z_2$. Since A is β -determining, { $Z(f^*)$: $f \in A$ } is a base for the closed sets in βX . So we can choose f, g \in A such that $p \notin Z(f^*) \supset Cl_{\beta X}Z_1$ and $q \notin Z(g^*) \supset Cl_{\beta X}Z_2$. By the choice above, $f \notin M^p$. Thus $M^p \in G - \{ M^S \in G : f \in M^S \}$ which is an open set in G. Similarly $M^q \in G - \{ M^S \in G : g \in M^S \}$ which is an open set in G. Furthermore by the choice of f, g, we see that fg = 0. Thus $\{ M^S \in G : f \in M^S \} \cup \{ M^S \in G : g \in M^S \} = G$. So $G - \{ M^S \in G : f \in M^S \}$ and $G - \{ M^S \in G : g \in M^S \}$ are disjoint open sets in G. Since p, q are arbitrary, G is Hausdorff. Since $M^p \neq M^q$, τ is one-to-one.

(2) implies (3). It suffices to prove that τ is closed. Let F be a closed set in βX . Since βX is compact, F is compact. Since τ is continuous, $\tau[F]$ is compact. Since G is Hausdorff, $\tau[F]$ is closed.

(3) implies (1). Let F be a closed set in βX and $p \in \beta X$ with $p \notin F$. Since τ is a homeomorphism, { $S(f) : f \in A$ } is a base for the closed sets in βX . Thus there exists $f \in A$ such that $p \notin S(f)$ and $F \subset S(f)$. Since $S(f) = \bigcap_{\substack{z \in A \\ g \in A}} Z((fg)^*)$, $(fg)^*(p) \neq 0$ for some $g \in A$. Thus $p \notin Z(f^*)$; but $F \subset S(f) \subset Z((fg)^*)$. This proves that { $Z(f^*)$: $f \in A$ } is a base for the closed sets in βX .

Theorem (2.10) Given a subalgebra A of C(X), the following are equivalent.

(1) A is closed under bounded inversion.

(2) If I is an ideal in A, then $\bigcap Z(f^*) \neq \phi$. fcI (3) Every ideal in A is contained in some M^P . (4) $M_A \subset G_A$.

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(5) Every $M \in M_{A}$ is absolutely convex

<u>Proof</u>: (1) implies (2). Let I be an ideal in A. Let $F = [Z(f^*):f \in I]$. To prove (2), by the compactness of βX , it suffices to show that F has the finite intersection property. Let $f_1, \dots, f_n \in I$ and let $g = f_1^2 + \dots + f_n^2 \in I$. Then $Z(g^*) = \bigcap_{i=1}^n Z(f_i^*)$. Suppose $Z(g^*) = \phi$. Then $|g^*(p)| > 0$ for all $p \in \beta X$. Since βX is compact, there exists r > 0 such that $|g^*(p)| \ge r > 0$. So $g \ge r$, and g is a unit of A. Since $g \in I$ and since I is proper, this is a contradiction. So we must have $Z(g^*) = \phi$.

(2) implies (3). Let I be an ideal in A. Let $p \in \bigcap_{f \in I} Z(f^*)$. We claim that $I \subset M^p$. For if $f \in I$, then $fg \in I$ for all $g \in A$. So $(fg)^*(p) = 0$, for all $g \in A$. So $f \in M^p$.

(3) implies (4) . Obvious.

(4) implies (5). It suffices to show that M^p is absolutely convex. Let $f \in A$ and $g \in M^p$ satisfying $|f| \leq |g|$. Then $|fh| \leq |gh|$ for all $h \in A$. Since X is dense in βX , $|(fh)^*| \leq |(gh)^*|$ for all $h \in A$. So $f \in M^p$.

(5) implies (1). Since 1 does not belong to any maximal ideal, it follows that f is a unit of A whenever $f \in A$ with $f \ge 1$.

This completes the proof .

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Theorem (2.11) Given a subalgebra A of C(X), the following are equivalent.

(1) A is a β -subalgebra of C(X).

(2) A is β -determining and closed under bounded inversion.

<u>Proof</u>: Suppose A is a β -subalgebra of C(X). By 2.9, A is β -determining. By 2.10, A is closed under bounded inversion.

Conversely suppose (2) holds. By 2.9, τ is a homeomorphism of βX onto G. By 2.10, $M \subset G$. Since G is T_2 , no two ideals of G are comparable. So M = G. This proves that A is a β -subalgebra of C(X).

CHAPTER III

THE A-POINTS OF $\beta X - X$

Let A be a β -subalgebra of C(X). By 2.9, the family {S(f): fcA} forms a base for the closed sets in βX . Let X* denote $\beta X - X$. For f c A, let S*(f) = S(f) $\cap X^*$. Then { S*(f) : f c A } is a base for the closed sets in X*. For convenience, let us agree that the symbols "C1", "int" and " ∂ ", without subscripts, refer to the topology of X*.

<u>Definition</u> (3.1) A space X is said to have the G_{δ} -property if every nonvoid G_{δ} subset of X has a nonvoid interior.

<u>Remark</u> (3.2) Since in a completely regular space X, every G_{δ} containing a compact set S contains a zero set containing S, it follows that X has the G_{δ} -property if and only if every nonempty zero set in X has a nonempty interior.

The following theorem will be used several times throughout this thesis : Let Y be a nonvoid locally compact Hausdorff space with the G_{δ} -property. If \mathcal{D} is a family of at most \aleph_1 dense open subsets of Y, then $\cap \mathcal{D}$ is dense in Y. If, in addition, Y has no isolated points, then $|\cap \mathcal{D}| \geq 2^{\aleph_1}$. ([5, 3.2]).

<u>Definition</u> (3.3) Given a β -subalgebra A of C(X), a point $p \in X^*$ is said to be an A-point of X^* if, for all $f \in A$, $p \notin \partial S^*(f)$.

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Remark (3.4)

(1) A point $p \in X^*$ is an A-point of X^* if and only if $S^*(f)$ is a neighbourhood of p whenever $f \in A$ and $p \in S^*(f)$.

(2) The set of A-points of X^* is precisely $\bigcap (X^* - \partial S^*(f))$. feA

Theorem (3.5) X is realcompact if and only if for every $p \in X^*$, there is a $Z \in Z(\beta X)$ such that $p \in Z \subset X^*$.

<u>Proof</u>: Suppose X is realcompact and $p \in X^*$. Then M^p is hyperreal by [2, 8.4]. By 1.20, M^{*p} contains a unit f of C(X). Since f is a unit of C(X), it follows that $Z(f^\beta) \subset X^*$. By 1.17, $p \in Z(f^\beta)$. This proves the necessity.

Conversely, let $p \in X^*$. By assumption, there exists $Z(g) \in Z(\beta X)$ such that $p \in Z(g) \subset X^*$. Then $g(x) \neq 0$ for all $x \in X$. So the restriction of g on X is a unit of C(X). Since g(p) = 0, $g \in M^{*P}$. By 1.20, M^P is hyperreal. This proves that X is real compact.

<u>Theorem</u> (3.6) Suppose X is a locally compact and realcompact space, then X^* has the G₈ property.

<u>Proof</u>: By remark 3.2, it suffices to prove that every nonempty zero set Z in X^{*} has nonempty interior. Since X is locally compact, by [2, 6.9(d)], X is open in βX . So X^{*} is closed. Since βX is compact and Hausdorff, βX is normal. So X^{*} is C^{*}-embedded in βX by [2, 3D]. Therefore

 $Z = Z(f) \cap X^*$ for some $f \in C(\beta X)$. Let $p \in Z$. By 3.5, there exists a function $g \in C(\beta X)$ such that g(p) = 0 but $g(x) \neq 0$ for all $x \in X$. Define h = |f| + |g|, then $p \in Z(h) \subset Z \cap X^*$. Now let $\{x_{\alpha}\}$ be a set in X converging to p . By continuity of h, $\{h(x_{\alpha})\}$ converges to h(p) = 0. Obviously we can choose a subsequence $\{x_{\alpha_i}\}$ of distinct points of $\{x_{\alpha}\}$ such that $h(x_{\alpha}) \longrightarrow 0$. By induction, choose disjoint compact neighbourhood V_i of x_{α_i} such that $|h(x) - h(x_{\alpha_i})| < \frac{1}{i}$ for $x \in V_i$. By complete regularity of X, there exists a function w_i such that $0 \le w_i \le 1$, $w_i(x_{\alpha_i}) = 1$, $w_i[X - V_i] = 0$. Let $w = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} w_i$, w is well defined provided that $\{x_{\alpha_i}\}$ has no limit point in X; but in fact, $\{X_{\alpha_i}\}$ cannot has a limit point in X by the fact that h is not zero at any point of X. Note that $w(x_{\alpha_i}) = 1$ for each i and w(x) = 0 for $x \in X - \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} V_i$. Now suppose $w^{\beta}(q) \neq 0$ for some $q \in X^{*}$, we see that every neighbourhood of q meets infinitely many V_i 's. Thus h(q) = 0. This proves that $X^* - (Z(w^\beta) \cap X^*) \subset Z(h)$. Since βX is compact, $\{x_{\alpha_i}\}$ has a limit point q in βX . As proved already q ϵX^* . Thus there exists a subsequence $\{x_{\alpha_{i_n}}\}$ of $\{x_{\alpha_{i_1}}\}$ such that $w^{\beta}(x_{\alpha_{i_n}}) \longrightarrow w^{\beta}(q)$. But $w^{\beta}(x_{\alpha_{i_n}}) = 1$ for all n, it follows that $w^{\beta}(q) = 1$. So $X^{*} - (Z(w^{\beta}) \cap X^{*}) \neq \phi$. Since Z(h) C Z and $X^* - (Z(w^\beta) \cap X^*)$ is open, this proves the theorem.

Theorem (3.7) If X is realcompact, then X^* has no isolated points.

<u>Proof</u>: Suppose p is an isolated point in X^* . Then there exists a zero set neighbourhood Z(f) of p in βX such that Z(f) $\cap X^* = \{p\}$. By 3.5, there exists Z(h) ε Z(βX) such that p ε Z(h) C X*. So $\{p\} = Z(f) \cap Z(h) \varepsilon Z(\beta X)$. So $\{p\}$ is a zero set in βX . Since $\{p\}$ is disjoint from X, by [2, 9.5], $\{p\}$ contains a copy of N. This leads to a contradiction.

<u>Theorem</u> (3.8) Let X be a locally compact and real compact metric space. Let A be a β -subalgebra of C(X) with |A| = C. If, in addition, X is not compact, then X^{*} has a dense subset of 2^cA-points.

<u>Proof</u>: Let $\mathcal{D} = \{ X^* - \partial S^*(f) : f \in A \}$. Obviously, for each $f \in A$, $X^* - \partial S^*(f)$ is an open dense subset of X^* . By 3.6, X^* has the G_{δ} property. By 3.7, X^* has no isolated points. Now apply [5, 3.2], we see that $\cap \mathcal{D}$ is dense in X^* and $|\cap \mathcal{D}| \ge 2^{c}$. Since A is a β -subalgebra of C(X), $|X^*| \le 2^{|A|} = 2^{c}$. So $|\cap \mathcal{D}| = 2^{c}$. By remark 3.4 (b), $\cap \mathcal{D}$ is precisely the set of A-points of X^* .

<u>Theorem</u> (3.9) Let X be a locally compact and realcompact but not compact metric space. Let { A_{α} : $\alpha \in \Delta$ } be a family of β -subalgebras of C(X) with $|A_{\alpha}| = C$ for each $\alpha \in \Delta$ and $|\Delta| \leq C$, then X* has a dense subset of 2^c points which are simultaneously A_{α} -points for all $\alpha \in \Delta$.

are similtaneously A_{α} -points for all $\alpha \in \Delta$. Applying [5, 3.2] again, $\cap \mathcal{P}$ is dense in X^* and $|\cap \mathcal{P}| \geq 2^{\mathsf{C}}$. Since A_{α} is a β -subalgebra of C(X), $|X^*| \leq 2^{|A_{\alpha}|} = 2^{\mathsf{C}}$. So $|\cap \mathcal{P}| = 2^{\mathsf{C}}$.

Theorem (3.10) A point in X^* is a $C^*(X)$ -point if and only if it is a P-point of X^* .

<u>Proof</u>: Since $M^{*p} = \{ f \in C^{*}(X) : f^{\beta}(p) = 0 \}$, we see that $S_{C^{*}}(f) = Z(f^{\beta})$, $f \in C^{*}(X)$. So $S_{C^{*}}^{*}(f) = X^{*} \cap Z(f^{\beta})$. Now by definition, a point in X^{*} is a P-point of X^{*} if and only if it is not an element of the X^{*} -boundary of any zero set of X^{*} , and is a $C^{*}(X)$ -point if and only if $p \notin \partial S_{C^{*}}^{*}(f) =$ $= \partial (X^{*} \cap Z(f^{\beta}))$ for all $f \in C^{*}(X)$. Obviously a P-point is a $C^{*}(X)$ -point.

Conversely suppose p is not a P-point. Then there exists $Z_1 \in Z(X^*)$ such that $p \in \partial Z_1$. Let S be a G_{δ} -set of βX such that S $\cap X^* = Z_1$. By [2, 3.11 (b)], there exists a $Z_2 \in Z(\beta X)$ such that $p \in Z_2 \subset S$. Then $p \in \partial (Z_2 \cap X^*)$. This proves that p is not a $C^*(X)$ -point.

Corollary (3.11)

(1)	βn — n	has a	a dense	subset	of	2 [¢]	P-points	•
			•				••	
(2)	βR — R	has a	a dense	subset	of	2 ^c	P-points	

<u>Proof</u>: (1) Obviously N is locally compact and realcompact but not compact. Furthermore $|C^*(N)| = C$. Applying 3.8, $\beta N - N$ has a dense subset of $2^{C} C^*(N)$ points. By 3.10, $\beta N - N$ has a dense subset of 2^{C} P-points.

(2) R is obviously locally compact and realcompact but not compact. Since R is separable, $|C^*(R)| = C$. Applying 3.8 and 3.10, p has a dense subset of 2^c P-points.

CHAPTER IV

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REMOTE POINTS IN BR

In this chapter, we shall turn our attention to the remote points in the space βR , the Stone Čech compactification of the space R of real numbers. As in [2], we associate with each maximal ideal M^p in C(R) the z-ultrafilter

 $A^{p} = \{ Z(f) : f \in M^{p} \} = \{ Z \in Z(R) : p \in Cl_{BR}Z \} .$

For $p \in \beta R$, we denote by 0^p the set of all $f \in C(R)$ for which $Cl_{\beta R}Z(f)$ is a neighbourhood of p, i.e.

$$O^{P} = \{ f \in C(R) : p \in int_{\beta R} Cl_{\beta R} Z(f) \}$$

<u>Definition</u> (4.1) A point $p \in \beta R$ is said to be a remote point in βR if p is not in the βR closure of any discrete subset of R.

Theorem (4.2) $\beta R - R$ has a dense subset of 2^C C-points.

<u>Proof</u>: Since R is separable, |C(R)| = C. By 3.8, it is immediate that $\beta R - R$ has a dense subset of 2^C C-points.

Lemma (4.3) If Z is a closed nowhere dense set in R, then there exists a discrete subset D of R such that D \cap Z = ϕ , D \cup Z = Cl_RD. <u>Proof</u>: Since Z is closed, R - Z is open. As an open set in R, R - Z is a union of disjoint open intervals I_{α} . For each I_{α} , choose a discrete subset $D_{\alpha} \subset I_{\alpha}$ such that the endpoints of I are the only limit points of D_{α} . Put $D = \bigcup_{\alpha} D_{\alpha}$. Obviously $D \cap Z = \phi$ and $D \cup Z = Cl_R D$.

Theorem (4.4) For $p \in \beta R$, the following are equivalent :

(1) p is a remote point in βR .

(2) A^p has no nowhere dense member .

(3) $M^p = 0^p$.

(4) p is a C-point of $\beta R - R$.

(5) M^p is a minimal prime ideal .

(6) O^P is prime.

<u>Proof</u>: (1) => (2). Suppose that A^p has a nowhere dense member Z. By 4.3, there is a discrete subset D of R such that Z () D = ϕ and Z U D = Cl_RD , so that $Cl_{\beta R}Z \subset Cl_{\beta R}D$. Hence $p \in Cl_{\beta R}Z \subset Cl_{\beta R}D$. Therefore p is not a remote point in βR .

(2) =>(1). Suppose p is not a remote point in βR . Then there is a discrete subset D of R such that $p \in Cl_{\beta R}D$. Clearly $Cl_{\beta R}D \in A^{p}$. We claim $int_{R}Cl_{R}D = \phi$. Suppose, on the contrary, that $int_{R}Cl_{R}D \neq \phi$. Then $(int_{R}Cl_{R}D) \cap D \neq \phi$. Let $q \in (int_{R}Cl_{R}D) \cap D$. Since D is discrete, q is open in D. So $\{q\} = D \cap G$ for some open set G in R. Obviously $\{q\} \subset G \cap (int_{R}Cl_{R}D)$. Conversely, let $r \in G \cap (int_{R}Cl_{R}D)$. Then r is either a point of D or a limit point of D. If r is a point of D, then $r \in D \cap G$. Hence r = q. If r is a limit point of D, then $G \cap D$ contains infinitely many points of D. This contradicts the fact that $D \cap G$ is a singleton set. So this cannot be the case, and $\{q\} = G \cap (int_R Cl_R D)$. This proves that $\{q\}$ is open in R, i.e. q is an isolated point in R. But this cannot be true. So we must have the fact that $int_R Cl_R D = \phi$. So A^P has a nowhere dense member .

(2) =>(3). Suppose that A^p has no nowhere dense member. Let $f \in M^p$. Since $Cl_R(R - Z(f))$ is a closed set in R, by Urysohn's lemma there exists a function $g \in C(R)$ such that $Z(g) = Cl_R(R - Z(f))$. Thus $R = Z(f) \cup Z(g)$. We claim $p \notin Cl_{\beta R}Z(g)$. Suppose not, then $p \in Cl_{\beta R}Z(f) \cap Cl_{\beta R}Z(g)$. By theorem 1.15, (4), $p \in Cl_{\beta R}Z(f) \cap Cl_{\beta R}Z(g) = Cl_{\beta R}(Z(f) \cap Z(g)) = Cl_{\beta R}\partial_RZ(f)$. This proves that $\partial_RZ(f) \in A^p$. Since $\partial_RZ(f)$ is nowhere dense, this contradicts our hypothesis that A^p has no nowhere dense member. So $p \notin Cl_{\beta R}Z(g)$. So $p \in \beta R - Cl_{\beta R}Z(g) \subset Cl_{\beta R}Z(f)$. Since $Cl_{\beta R}Z(g)$ is closed, $\beta R - Cl_{\beta R}Z(g)$ is open. This proves that $Cl_{\beta R}Z(f)$ is a neighbourhood of p. Thus $f \in O^p$.

(3) => (4). Suppose that $0^p = M^p$. For any $f \in C(R)$ and $p \in S_c^*(f) = S_c(f) \cap (\beta R - R) = (Cl_{\beta R}Z(f)) \cap (\beta R - R)$, then $f \in M^p$, whence $f \in 0^p$. Thus $p \in int_{\beta R}Cl_{\beta R}Z(f)$. Thus p is in the interior of $S_c^*(f)$ in $\beta R - R$. By remark 3.4, (1), this proves that p is a C-point of $\beta R - R$.

(4) => (2) . Suppose that p is a C-point of $\beta R - R$, and let Z ϵA^{p} . We shall show that Z is not nowhere dense. Since Z ϵA^{p} ,

 $p \in Cl_{\beta R}^{2}$. So $p \in (Cl_{\beta R}^{2}) \cap (\beta R - R) = S_{c}(f) \cap (\beta R - R) = S_{c}^{*}(f)$. Since p is a C-point, by remark 3.4, (1), p is in the interior of $S_{c}^{*}(f)$ in $\beta R - R$. Thus $p \in int_{\beta R}^{2}Cl_{\beta R}^{2}$. Obviously $(int_{\beta R}^{2}Cl_{\beta R}^{2}) \cap R \neq \phi$ and is a subset of Z. This proves that Z is not nowhere dense.

(2) => (5) . Assume (2) . Suppose, on the contrary, that M^P is a nonminimal prime ideal. Let I be a prime ideal properly contained in M^P . Choose Z $\in Z[M^P] - Z[I] = A^P - Z[I]$. Since R = Z \cup Cl(R - Z) and Z $\notin Z[I]$, it follows that Cl(R - Z) $\in Z[I]$. So Cl(R - Z) $\in M^P$. Thus $\partial_R Z = Z \cap Cl(R - Z) \in M^P$. Obviously $\partial_R Z$ is nowhere dense. This contradicts our hypothesis. So M^P is a minimal prime ideal.

(5) => (3) . Assume (5). By [2, 2.8], 0^p is the intersection of all the prime ideals contained in M^p . Since M^p is a minimal prime ideal, it follows that $M^p = 0^p$.

(3) => (6) . Obvious .

(6) => (5) . Suppose M^P is not a minimal prime ideal. Since (5) and (2) are equivalent, it follows that A^P has a nowhere dense member Z. Choose disjoint discrete subsets D_1 , D_2 of R such that $D'_1 = Z$, i = 1, 2, where D'_1 denotes the derived set of D_1 in R. Let $G_1 = Cl_R D_1$, i = 1, 2. Obviously $Cl_R (G_1 - Z) \in A^P$. By [4, 4.2], A^P has a prime z-filter F_1 containing G_1 but not Z, for i = 1, 2. Since $G_1 \cap G_2 = Z$, we see that F_1 and F_2 are incomparable. Thus $Z^{<-}[F_1]$ and $Z^{<-}[F_2]$ are incomparable. Since F_1 is a prime z-filter in A^P , $Z^{<-}[F_1]$ is a prime ideal contained in M^P , i = 1, 2. By [2, 7.5], $Z^{<-}[F_1]$ contains O^P , i = 1, 2. By 1.23, we see that O^P is not prime.

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Theorem (4.5) $\beta R - R$ has a dense subset of 2^{c} remote points in βR .

Proof : Follows immediately from 4.2 and 4.4.

<u>Theorem</u> (4.6) $\beta R - R$ has a dense subset of 2^C points which are simultaneously remote points in βR and P-points of $\beta R - R$.

<u>Proof</u>: Apply 3.9 to the family { C(R), $C^*(R)$ } of β -subalgebras of C(R). Then $\beta R - R$ has a dense subset of 2^{C} points which are simultaneously C^* -points and C-points of $\beta R - R$. By 3.10, C^* -points of $\beta R - R$ are precisely the P-points of $\beta R - R$. By 4.4, C-points of $\beta R - R$ are precisely the remotes points in βR .

Theorem (4.7) $\beta R - R$ has a dense subset of 2^c points which are P-points of $\beta R - R$ but not remote points in βR .

<u>Proof</u>: Let V be a closed neighbourhood in βR of any point in $\beta R - R$. Obviously V () R is not pseudocompact. Since V () R is closed, by [2, 1.18], it is C-embedded in R. Thus by [2, 1.20], V () R contains a copy D of N which is C-embedded in R. Since D is C*-embedded in R, by 1.16, $\beta D = Cl_{\beta R}D$. Since V is closed in βR , we see that $D^* = \beta D - D = Cl_{\beta R}D - D \subset V () R^*$. Since $\beta D - D$ is homeomorphic with $\beta N - N$, by 3.11, $\beta D - D$ has 2^{C} P-points of $\beta D - D$. By [2, 9 M.2], we see that a point in $\beta D - D$ is a P-point of $\beta D - D$ if and only if it is a P-point of $\beta R - R$, that $\beta D - D$ has 2^{C} P-points of $\beta R - R$. Since

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D is discrete, no point of $\beta D - D$ is a remote point of βR . Since V is arbitrary, this proves the theorem.

<u>Definition</u> (4.8) A space X is said to be an F-space if every cozero set in X is C*-embedded in X.

Remark (4.9) By [2, 14.27], $\beta N - N$ is a compact F-space and so is $\beta R - R$.

Lemma (4.10) Every infinite compact F-space has at least 2^c non P-points.

<u>Proof</u>: Let X be an infinite compact F-space. Since X is infinite, there is a countable discrete subset $D = \{ d_n : n \in N \}$. By [2, 14 N.5], D is C*-embedded in X. So $Cl_X D = \beta D$ by 1.16. Let $f \in C^*(X)$ be such that $f(d_n) = n^{-1}$, $n \in N$. Then for any $p \in D^* = \beta D - D = Cl_X D - D$, $p \in Z(f)$, but obviously Z(f) is not a neighbourhood of p. Thus pis not a P-point. Since $|\beta D - D| = 2^c$, this proves the lemma.

Theorem (4.11) $\beta R - R$ has a dense subset of 2^C points which are neither remote points in βR nor P-points of $\beta R - R$.

<u>Proof</u>: Let V be a closed neighbourhood in βR of any point in $\beta R - R$. As in the proof of 4.7, V $\cap R^*$ contains a copy $D^* = \beta D - D$ of $\beta N - N$. By remark 4.9, D^* is a compact F-space. By 4.10, D^* has at least 2^{C} non P-points of D^* . So by [2, 9M.2], D^* has at least 2^{C} non P-points of $\beta R - R$. Since D is discrete, no point of $\beta D - D$ is a remote point of βR . This proves the theorem . Theorem (4.12) $\beta R - R$ has a dense subset of 2^C points which are remote points in βR but not P-points of $\beta R - R$.

<u>Proof</u>: Let V be a closed neighbourhood in βR of any point in $\beta R - R$. By [5, 5.5], there exists an infinite compact set Δ of remote points in βR such that $\Delta \subset V \cap (\beta R - R)$. Since $\beta R - R$ is an F-space by 4.9, the C*-embedded subset Δ is also an F-space by [2, 14.26]. By 4.10, Δ has 2^C non P-points. By [2, 4L.2], each of these points is a non P-point of $\beta R - R$. This proves the theorem .

CHAPTER V

PRIME IDEAL STRUCTURE AND REMOTE POINTS

<u>Definition</u> (5.1) Let P(X) denote the family of all prime z-filters on X. A prime z-filter is said to be minimal if it is a minimal element of P(X). For A, B ε P(X), if A \subset B, we say that A is a predecessor of B and that B is a successor of A. If in addition there is no prime z-filter between them, we use the term immediate predecessor and immediate successor.

Theorem (5.2) Let A be a prime z-filter on X. Suppose there exists $Z \in A$ such that for any zero set $W \notin A$, $Z \cup W \neq X$. Then A is non-minimal.

Proof : For any E C X, let

 $z(E) = \{ Z \in Z(X) : E \subset Z \}$

By assumption, we have $z(X - Z) \subset A$. Now let

$$B = \{ W \in Z(X) : z(W - Z) \subset A \}$$

Since $X \in B$, $B \neq \phi$. Furthermore B has the following properties :

(i) B is closed under supersets : Let $W \in B$ and let $V \in Z(X)$ such that $W \subset V$. Obviously $z(V - Z) \subset z(W - Z)$ and hence $z(V - Z) \subset A$

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Thus VEB.

(ii) for any W_1 , $W_2 \in Z(X)$, if $W_1 \notin B$ for i = 1, 2, then $W_1 \cup W_2 \notin B$: choose $V_1 \in z(W_1 - Z) - A$ for i = 1, 2. Since A is prime, $V_1 \cup V_2 \notin A$. On the other hand, it is obvious that $V_1 \cup V_2 \in z(W_1 \cup W_2 - Z)$ and by definition of B, $W_1 \cup W_2 \notin B$.

Now applying Zorn's lemma, there exists a z-filter F which is maximal among the z-filters contained in \mathcal{B} . Note that $Z \notin F$. Furthermore, for any $W \in F$, $W \in z(W - Z) \subset A$, so that $W \in A$. Thus $F \subset A$, $F \neq A$. Finally we shall prove that F is prime. Let Z_1 , $Z_2 \in Z(X)$ with $Z_1 \cup Z_2 \in F$. Suppose $Z_i \notin F$ for i = 1, 2. By the maximality of F, there is $W_i \in F$ such that $W_i \cap Z_i \notin B$, for i = 1, 2. Setting $W = W_1 \cap W_2$, obviously $W \cap (Z_1 \cup Z_2) \in F$. Since B is closed under supersets, $W \cap Z_i \notin B$, i = 1, 2. By property (ii) of B, we see that $W \cap (Z_1 \cup Z_2) \notin B$. Thus $W \cap (Z_1 \cup Z_2) \notin F$, and this leads to a contradiction. Thus we must have that F is prime, and hence F is an immediate predecessor of A. So A is non-minimal.

<u>Theorem</u> (5.3) For each $p \in \beta X$, every prime ideal P of C^{*}(X) contained in M^{*P} is comparable with M^P () C^{*}.

<u>Proof</u>: Obviously $M^P \cap C^*$ is a prime ideal contained in C^* . Choose a minimal prime ideal J such that $J \subset P$. By 1.24, it suffices to show that $J \subset M^P \subset C^*$. To show this, we first pass to the ring $C(\beta X)$ by means of the canonical isomorphism $f \longrightarrow f^\beta$ of $C^*(X)$ onto $C(\beta X)$, and then we pass to the family of prime z-filters on $\,\beta\,X$.

Since $M^p = \{ f \in C(X) : p \in Cl_{\beta X} Z_X(f) \}$, the prime ideal in $C(\beta X)$ corresponding to $M^p \cap C^*$ is given by

$$(M^{\mathbf{P}} \cap C^{*})^{\beta} = \{ g \in C(\beta X) : p \in Cl_{\beta X}Z_{X}(g|X) \}$$

we claim $(M^{p} \cap C^{*})^{\beta}$ is a z-ideal. Let $Z_{\beta X}(f) \in Z_{\beta X}((M^{p} \cap C^{*})^{\beta})$, then $Z_{\beta X}(f) = Z_{\beta X}(g)$ for some $g \in C(\beta X)$. Hence $Z_{X}(f|X) = Z_{\beta X}(f) \cap X =$ $= Z_{\beta X}(g) \cap X = Z_{X}(g|X)$, whence $p \in Cl_{\beta X}Z_{X}(f|X)$. This proves that $f \in (M^{p} \cap C^{*})^{\beta}$ and hence $(M^{p} \cap C^{*})^{\beta}$ is a z-ideal. Now let us denote the corresponding prime z-filter on βX by K^{p} ; obviously

$$K^{p} = \{ Z \in Z(\beta X) : p \in Cl_{\beta Y}(Z \cap X) \}$$

Also by [2,.14.7], the minimal prime ideal J^{β} of $C(\beta X)$ corresponding to J is a z-ideal; let B denote the corresponding minimal prime z-filter on βX . Now we are going to show that $B \subset K^{p}$. Let $Z \in B$. To show that $Z \in K^{p}$, it suffices to show that $p \in Cl_{\beta X}(Z \cap X)$. Now let V be any zero set neighbourhood of p. By [2, 7.15], $V \in B$ and hence $V \cap Z \in B$. Since B is minimal, applying theorem 5.2, we can choose a zero set W not in B such that $(V \cap Z) \cup W = \beta X$. If $int_{\beta X}(V \cap Z) = \phi$, then W is dense in βX and hence $W = \beta X$. Thus $W \in B$, but this is impossible. So we see that $int(V \cap Z) \neq \phi$, and $(V \cap Z) \cap X \neq \phi$, whence $p \in Cl_{\beta X}(Z \cap X)$ and $Z \in K^{p}$. Thus $B \subset K^{p}$ and hence $J \subset M^{p} \cap C^{*}$. <u>Definition</u> (5.4) If $Y \subset X$ and F is a z-filter on Y, it is clear that

 $F^{\#} = \{ Z \in Z(X) : Z \cap Y \in F \}$

is a z-filter on X; it is called the z-filter induced on X by F.

If $Y \subset X$ and F is a z-filter on X, then $F | Y = \{Z \cap Y : Z_{\varepsilon}F\}$ is called the trace of F on Y.

<u>Definition</u> (5.5) A z-ideal in C^* is an ideal I that contains any function that belongs to the same maximal ideals as some function in I.

<u>Theorem</u> (5.6) If Y is C^{*}-embedded in X and F is a prime z-filter on X such that every member of F meets Y, then F|Y is a prime z-filter on Y.

<u>Proof</u>: It is clear that F|Y is a z-filter on Y. To show that F|Yis prime, it suffices to show that for any Z, $W \in Z(Y)$ with $Z \cup W = Y$, at least one of them belongs to F|Y. Since Y is C*-embedded in X, we can choose S, $T \in Z(X)$ such that $Z = S \cap Y$, $W = T \cap Y$. Since F is prime and $F \subset (F|Y)^{\#}$, it follows that $(F|Y)^{\#}$ is prime. Since $(S \cup T) \cap Y = Z \cup W = Y$, by definition of $(F|Y)^{\#}$ we see that $S \cup T \in (F|Y)^{\#}$. Thus at least one of S, T belongs to $(F|Y)^{\#}$, and whence at least one of Z, W belongs to F|Y. Hence F|Y is prime. <u>Review</u> (5.7) In the rest of this chapter, we consider the real line R only. By the Stone-Čech compactification theorem and [2, 2.12], we see that the prime z-ideals contained in M^{*P} are in order preserving correspondence with the prime z-filters on βX contained in $A^{P}_{\beta R}$, by means of the mapping $P \longrightarrow Z[P^{\beta}]$. Under this mapping $M^{P} \cap C^{*} \longrightarrow K^{P}$ (see theorem 5.3), where

$$K^{P} = \{ Z \in Z(\beta R) : p \in Cl_{\beta R}(Z \cap R) \}$$

Since R is locally compact, it follows that $\beta R - R$ is a zero set in βX and is C^{*}-embedded in βR . Obviously there is a bounded unit of C(R) that belongs to M^{*P} for every $p \in \beta R - R$. Thus M^P $\cap C^* \neq M^{*P}$ if and only if $p \in \beta R - R$.

Theorem (5.8) For any $p \in \beta R$, the family of prime z-filters on βR contained in K^{P} is in one-to-one corresponding with the family of prime z-filters on R contained in A^{P} .

<u>Proof</u>: Let P be a prime z-filter contained in K^p , then every member of P meets R. By theorem 5.6, $P|R = \{ Z \cap R : Z \in P \}$ is a prime z-filter on R. Since $P \subset K^p$, it follows that $P|R \subset A^p$. If B is a prime z-filter on R contained in A^p , obviously the induced prime z-filter

$$\mathcal{B}^{\#} = \{ Z \in Z(\beta R) : Z \cap R \in \mathcal{B} \}$$

is contained in K^p and $B^{\#}|_{X} = B$. Hence the mapping $P \longrightarrow P|_{X}$ for $P \subset K^p$ is onto the family of prime z-filters of C(R) contained in A^p .

To prove that the mapping is one to one, it suffices to show that $P = (P|X)^{\#}$. Obviously $P \subset (P|R)^{\#}$. Conversely for any $Z \in (P|R)^{\#}$, there is $W \in P$ such that $Z \cap R = W \cap R$. Obviously $W \subset Z \cup (\beta R - R)$, so that $Z \cup (\beta R - R) \in P$. By definition of K^P , we see that $\beta R - R \notin P$. Since P is prime, we have $Z \in P$. This proves that $(P|R)^{\#} \subset P$ and hence $P = (P|R)^{\#}$.

<u>Corollary</u> (5.9) The family of prime z-ideals of $C^*(R)$ contained in $M^P \cap C^*$ is order isomorphic with the family of prime z-ideals of C(R) contained in M^P .

<u>Proof</u>: It follows immediately from 5.8, the Stone-Čech compactification theorem and [2, 2.12].

<u>Corollary</u> (5.10) M^P is a minimal prime ideal of C if and only if $M^P \cap C^*$ is a minimal prime ideal of C^* .

<u>Corollary</u> (5.11) p is a remote point in βR if and only if $M^{p} \cap C^{*}$ is a minimal prime ideal of C^{*} .

<u>Theorem</u> (5.12) For any $p \in \beta R - R$. The family of prime z-filters on βR properly containing K^p is in one-to-one correspondence with the family of prime z-filters on $\beta R - R$ contained in $A^p_{\beta R} - R$.

<u>Proof</u>: Let P be a prime z-filter on βR properly containing K^p . Obviously every member of P meets $\beta R - R$. So by theroem 5.6, we see that the trace P ($\beta R - R$) is a prime z-filter on $\beta R - R$. Since P C $A^p_{\beta R}$, it follows that P ($\beta R - R$) C $A^p_{\beta R - R}$. Let B be a prime z-filter on $\beta R - R$ contained in $A^p_{\beta R - R}$. The induced z-filter

 $B^{\#} = \{ Z \in Z(\beta R) : Z \cap (\beta R - R) \in B \}$

is clearly prime and $B^{\#}|(\beta R - R) = B$. Since $\beta R - R \not\in K^{P}$ and $\beta R - R \in B^{\#}$, it follows from theorem 5.3 that $B^{\#}$ properly contains K^{p} . This proves that the mapping $P \longrightarrow P | (\beta R - R)$, for $K^P \subset P$ is onto the family of prime z-filters on $\beta R - R$ contained in $A^p_{\beta R - R}$. Finally we are going to show that it is one-to-one . It suffices to show that $P = (P | (\beta R - R))^{\#}$. Obviously $P \subset (P | (\beta R - R))^{\#}$. Now let $Z \in (P | (\beta R - R))^{\#}$, then there exists $W \in P$ such that $Z \cap (\beta R - R) = W \cap (\beta R - R)$. We claim $\beta R - R \epsilon P$. Suppose not, then the z-ideal P in C*(R) corresponding to P contains no unit of C(R). Let $f \in P$ and let V be a zero set neighbourhood of p in βR . Since P^{β} is prime and is contained in $A^{p}_{\beta R}$, by [2, 4I.4], it follows that V ϵ Z[P^{\beta}]. Thus V \cap Z(f^{\beta}) ϵ Z[P^{\beta}] and hence $V \cap Z(f) \in Z[P]$. Since P contains no unit of C(R), $V \cap Z(f) \neq \phi$. Hence $p \in Cl_{\beta R}^{Z}(f)$ and therefore $f \in M^{p}$. This proves that $P \subset M^{p} \cap C^{*}$, i.e. P is contained in K^p , but this is impossible. So we must have $\beta R - R \in P$. Thus $Z \cap (\beta R - R) = W \cap (\beta R - R) \in P$ and hence $Z \in P$. This proves that $(P | (\beta R - R))^{\#} \subset P$, and hence the mapping is one to one.

<u>Definition</u> (5.13) The z-filter generated by a z-filter F and a zero set Z that meets every member of F is denoted by (F, Z). Obviously

$$(F, Z) = \{ W \in Z(X) : \text{ for some } F \in F, F \cap Z \subset W \}.$$

<u>Remark</u> (5.14) In the last part of the proof of 5.12, we showed that for any $p \in \beta R - R$, a prime z-filter contained in $A^{p}_{\beta R}$ properly contains K^{p} if and only if it contains the zero set $\beta R - R$. This means that K^{p} has an immediate successor $(K^{p})^{+}$ in the family of prime z-filters on βR , generated by K^{p} and the zero set $\beta R - R$, i.e. $(K^{p})^{+} = (K^{p}, \beta R - R)$. Furthermore, according to the construction of the one to one onto mapping in theorem 5.12, we note that $(K^{p})^{+} = (Z[O^{p}_{\beta R} - R])^{\#}$.

<u>Theorem</u> (5.15) $(\mathbb{Z}[O^p_{\beta R}], \beta R - R) = (\mathbb{Z}[O^p_{\beta R} - R])^{\#}$. Hence $(\mathbb{Z}[O^p_{\beta R}, \beta R - R) = (K^p)^+$, and the immediate successor of $M^p \cap C^*$ in the family of prime z-ideals of $C^*(R)$ consists of all functions f such that f^β vanishes on a neighbourhood of p in $\beta R - R$.

<u>Proof</u>: For any $Z \in (Z[O_{\beta R}^{P}], \beta R - R)$, there exists $W \in Z[O_{\beta R}^{P}]$ such that $W \cap (\beta R - R) \subset Z$. Since $W \cap (\beta R - R) \in Z[O_{\beta R - R}^{P}]$, it follows that $Z \cap (\beta R - R) \in Z[O_{\beta R - R}^{P}]$. Thus $Z \in (Z[O_{\beta R - R}^{P}])^{\#}$. Conversely for any $Z \in (Z[O_{\beta R - R}^{P}])^{\#}$, then $Z \cap (\beta R - R) \in Z[O_{\beta R - R}^{P}]$. This means that $Z \cap (\beta R - R)$ is a zero set neighbourhood of $P \in \beta R - R$ in $\beta R - R$. So there is $W \in Z[O_{\beta R}^{P}]$ such that $W \cap (\beta R - R) \subset Z \cap (\beta R - R)$. Thus W () ($\beta R - R$) C Z, and Z ϵ (Z[$0^p_{\beta R}$], $\beta R - R$).

<u>Corollary</u> (5.16) For any $p \in \beta R - R$, p is a P-point of $\beta R - R$ if and only if M^{*P} is the immediate successor of $M^P \cap C^*$ in the family of prime z-ideals of $C^*(X)$.

<u>Corollary</u> (5.17) For any $p \in \beta R - R$, the family of prime z-ideals of C*(R) contained in M*^p consists of just the two ideals M*^p and M^p \cap C* if and only if p is both a remote point in βR and a P-point of $\beta R - R$.

Theorem (5.18) p is a remote point in βR if and only if the prime ideals contained in M^p form a chain.

<u>**Proof</u>**: If p is a remote point in βR , then M^p is a minimal prime ideal and hence the necessity follows immediately.</u>

Conversely, suppose that the prime ideals contained in M^p form a chain C. By [2, 2.8] $O^p = \cap C$. To show that p is a remote point of $\beta R - R$, it suffices to show that $O^p = \cap C$ is prime. Now let $a \notin \cap C$, $b \notin C$. Then there exists P, $J \in C$ such that $a \notin P$, $b \notin J$. Since C is a chain, it follows that $P \subset J$, say. Thus $b \notin P$. Since P is prime, $ab \notin P$. Hence $ab \notin \cap C$. This proves that O^p is prime.

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